

Title: **Negative Evidence in Second Language Learning** (0945)
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1. Description of Activities

The focus of our research is the role of error correction in language learning. Much current research in first and second language acquisition holds that feedback has little or no impact on language learning. Much traditional language pedagogy assumes that correction must be effective. Surprisingly, there is little empirical research one way or the other.

Our objectives were

- i) to clarify the role of negative input in second language learning. There exists no **systematic** set of studies within current theoretical thinking that explores the role of negative input for adult second language learners. Our study builds on previous research into the role of correction (see Appendix 1)¹ by comparing the effect of correction to other forms of feedback.
- ii) to integrate our findings into current psycholinguistic theories of learning in the second language context, specifically to work towards the development of a plausible theory of lexical acquisition in the classroom context. Much current research is either linguistically sophisticated but empirically impoverished or empirically rich but linguistically naive (see Carroll 1989: 535-543). This is especially true of discussions of word learning. Our study provides experimentally obtained data on a poorly understood and little studied area of second language learning. In addition to statistical results, we provide qualitative analysis tied to explicit models of grammatical knowledge, parsing and production.
- (iii) to integrate our findings into current educational theories concerned with the range and depth of language input, and negative input (in the technical sense) more generally. We hope to develop a testable model of correction which can then be subject to classroom verification. Our study can provide some empirical data to clarify speculative discussions on the emotional consequences (good or bad) of feedback, the effect of metalinguistic input (e.g. teaching grammatical rules), etc.

We proposed to undertake 2 experiments comparing the effects of different types of feedback classified according to a typology derived from the theoretical literature (Birdsong 1988). We specifically wanted to compare metalinguistic input about linguistic generalizations (our Explicit Hypothesis Rejection - Type A input), input which merely classifies utterances into acceptable and unacceptable subsets (our Explicit Utterance Rejection - Type B input), correction which provides an accurate model but also implies that some other form (the learner's utterance) is wrong (our Implicit Negative Input - Type C input), and indirect metalinguistic information where both the nature of an error and its status as an error must be inferred from the interlocutor's behaviour and violations of various Gricean principles of discourse behaviour (our Type D input). The

¹ We are putting the finishing touches on the paper serving as Appendix 1, which is being submitted to Applied Psycholinguistics. It will be forwarded in a few days.

first experiment was to deal with the Dative alternation - a lexically-based syntactic phenomenon. It will be described in detail below. Our second experiment was to look at suffixation, in particular, agentive -er nominals derived from verbs (John is a breaks windows - John is a breaker of windows.) SSHRC reviewers had, quite correctly, raised questions about the linguistic backgrounds of our subjects so we decided to draw subjects from homogeneous linguistic backgrounds. We decided on Spanish for Experiment 1 and Chinese for Experiment 2 for theoretical and practical reasons. Spanish is an Indo-European language which does not have a syntactic construction like Dative Shift (although it does have deverbal nominal suffixes corresponding to English -er) thus eliminating the possibility of direct transfer from Spanish to English. Chinese has little derivational morphology making its speakers a suitable choice for our study of suffixation. The methodology required 100 subjects for each experiment, viz. 100 Spanish learners and 100 Chinese learners. Since Toronto has large numbers of ESL learners from both linguistic backgrounds, we did not anticipate having difficulties recruiting subjects. Our expectations were wrong; by the time we had completed data collection for Experiment 1, it became obvious that we either needed to hire an additional researcher (impossible, given our budget) or abandon the idea of doing Experiment 2 as planned. We decided, therefore, upon completion of Experiment 1 (in June 1990), to devote our resources to doing Protocol analysis. (Refer to comments by SSHRC reviewers.) This report will therefore provide results of both a quantitative and qualitative nature about our Hispanic subjects and their learning of the Dative Alternation in English. We were able, nonetheless, to compile a bibliography of research on Chinese language and Chinese learners which we are making available to interested parties (see Appendix 2).

Experiment 1

This experiment involved 100 Adult ESL learners (all Hispanics). We wanted to investigate the extent to which more explicit and informative types of feedback are more helpful. Accordingly, we developed (based on the literature) and used a typology of feedback ranging from the explicit rejection of an hypothesis ("The verb donate doesn't alternate"), through the explicit rejection of an utterance ("You can't say that!"), or the use of overt correction in expansions and repetitions, to quite indirect responses ("Are you SURE you want to say that?"). The basic assumption was that the more informative and explicit the feedback, the more effective it would be. We divided the subjects into five groups of feedback. We then did a cross-group analysis. We also did a within-group analysis to verify the extent of learning over the course of the testing.

We also wanted to investigate the relationship of the feedback to the types of hypotheses learners might hold about the language. We trained subjects on the dative alternation, as in (1).

- 1) a. John wrote a letter to Mary.
b. John wrote Mary a letter.

By simply presenting subjects with examples of verbs in **V NP to NP** frames, we anticipated that they would adopt a general syntactic hypothesis (e.g. "If a verb can take **NP to NP** as complements, then it can alternate as **V NP NP**). This hypothesis is incorrect since there are both semantic and phonological restrictions on the alternation. We wanted to see if learners could learn these restrictions from the feedback. In experiment 2, the relationship is different in that exceptions to the conversion rule tend to be idiosyncratic rather than principled.

Methodology:

One hundred native speakers of Spanish, adult students enrolled in ESL classes from various institutions: George Brown College, COSTI-IIAS Education Centre, The Spanish Centre, Continuing Education (University of Toronto participated in both Experiment 1 and Experiment 2. The students were enrolled in (Low) Intermediate classes, however, in order to ensure uniformity of language learning level, a listening test was given before accepting them as subjects in this study. This test, the Judgement Acceptability Task, consisted of 50 sentences -- 25 grammatically correct and 25 grammatically incorrect; the subjects were required to identify each sentence as correct or incorrect. The test had been previously piloted with native speakers and a minimum and maximum acceptability score was established.

Each subject was tested individually during two test sessions spaced about one week apart:

Session 1

- Brief presentation of the experiment by the researcher administering the tests.
- Judgement Acceptability Task.
- Reading and signing of a consent form in Spanish
- Completion of a questionnaire (by the subject and the researcher) eliciting information on the linguistic background of the subject.
- Experiment 1: experimental sessions (feedback 1, guessing 1, feedback 2, guessing 2) and Recall 1.

Session 2:

- Experiment 1: Recall 2.

The sessions were tape-recorded. Subsequently, the tapes were transcribed and the subjects' responses were coded according to a coding system agreed upon by the research team.

The subjects were divided into five groups -- A, B, C, D, Control -- according to the feedback they were to receive during the experimental sessions; each group consisted of 20 subjects. Having given an incorrect response, the subjects in group A were told that they were wrong and they were given an explanation (explicit hypothesis rejection); subjects in group B were told that they were wrong, but no explanation was offered (explicit utterance rejection); subjects in group C were given the correct response however no explanation was offered either (item modelling plus implicit negative input); subjects in group D were asked whether they were sure that their response was correct, and were expected to support or reject it (indirect metalinguistic information). Finally, the comparison group subjects were given no feedback whatsoever.

EXPERIMENT 1 — DATIVE ALTERNATION

In this experiment, the subjects were trained on the Dative alternation, e.g. **Peter wrote a letter to Theresa -- Peter wrote Theresa a letter.** There are principled exceptions to the Dative alternation: verbs occurring in the alternation tend to have native (non-Latinate) stems with specific phonological properties; alternating verbs also have required semantic properties, they must express not only the goal of a movement or transfer of a thing but also a change in possession. To learn the alternation pattern, one must learn therefore the semantic restrictions on the double object frame and the phonological restrictions on the alternating pairs. After training the subjects on the alternation, errors of both types - phonological and semantic - were induced and the subjects received specific types of feedback according to their group.

Experiment 1 consisted of 152 items presented as follows:

Training session - 8 items

Experimental session 1 (Feedback) - 24 items

Experimental session 2 (Guessing) - 24 items

Recall 1 - 48 items (replicating the items of the Experimental sessions 1 and 2)

Recall 2 - 48 items (same as Recall 1).

144 items (excluding the training session) were coded for data analysis.

Training session

The training session started with two pairs of sentences printed on large cards; the researcher read the instructions and the text, while showing the cards to the subject:

"We are doing a study concerned with the study of English as a Second Language. I will give you a sentence and I would like you to think of a different way of saying the same sentence.

For example, in English you can say **Peter wrote a letter to Theresa.** Once again, **Peter wrote a letter to Theresa.** But you can also say **Peter wrote Theresa a letter.** I repeat: **Peter wrote Theresa a letter.** These two sentences **Peter wrote a letter to Theresa** and **Peter wrote Theresa a letter** have the same meaning, they 'alternate'.

I will give you another example: **The teacher teaches English to the class.** Again, **The teacher teaches English to the class.** But you can also say **The teacher teaches the class English.** Again, **The teacher teaches the class English.** These two sentences **The teacher teaches English to the class** and **The teacher teaches the class English** also have the same meaning, they also 'alternate'."

While the first set of sentences gives a proper noun, **Theresa**, as indirect object, the second set introduces a common noun preceded by an article, **the class**. Both sets of sentences use the preposition **to**.

Following this introduction the subjects were presented with six sets of alternating sentences. For the first two sets, they were asked to provide the alternating sentences: "Now I will give you more sentences. I would like you to read each sentence aloud, then try to find a different way of saying the same sentence". These two sentences were: **Mary found a job for Antonio** and **Will you catch a butterfly for me?**. The first sentence follows the pattern of the first given sentence, however, it introduces a new preposition: **for**; the second sentence replaces the indirect object noun with the pronoun **me**, also it uses the interrogative mood. If the responses provided by the subjects were incorrect, they were given the correct forms, but without explanations. In the cases where the preposition was reiterated in the alternate form (**Mary found for Antonio a job, Will you catch for me a butterfly?**), the response was repeated with no preposition and subjects were asked to produce it again correctly.

Following this, two more sentences were given, together with their correct alternating forms: **John showed a photograph of his family to Susan, John showed Susan a photograph of his family**, and **The bird builds a nest for its chicks, The bird builds its chicks a nest**. The first set of this group introduces a direct object NP which includes a PP - **a photograph of his family**, the second set uses a possessive as determiner - **its**. Both prepositions - **to** and **for** are being used. The subjects were requested to read the two sets of sentences and notice the alternation pattern and similarity of meaning.

Finally, two more sentences were presented: **Jose sent a package to Sofia** and **Margarita baked cookies for the visitors**. No new items were introduced and both **to** and **for** were used. The subjects were asked to provide the correct alternate sentences. As before, they were corrected if wrong; if the prepositions were carried over in the alternate sentences, the researcher repeated the sentences correctly and the subjects were requested to repeat the correct forms.

In case there were any incorrect responses, the whole training session was repeated.

Experimental sessions

The researcher introduced the experimental sessions with the following introduction: "Now, we will continue like before. Please read each sentence aloud, then try to form another sentence with the same meaning, based on the examples you have seen before. For some of the sentences that you will get, you will be able to form another sentence with the same meaning. However, for some of the sentences it will not be possible to provide a correct alternative, that is, there is no other sentence with the same meaning as the given sentence. In English, some sentences 'alternate' and some sentences do not 'alternate'. Therefore, you will have to decide whether you can produce a similar sentence or whether it is not possible."

Next, the subjects were introduced to the kind of feedback they were to receive, according to their group. The following are examples of feedback received by each group:

Example 1

Sentence on card: **The students pronounce a new word for their teacher.**

Subject's incorrect response: **The students pronounce their teacher a new word.**

Group A: You cannot say **The students pronounce their teacher a new word.** This is because long verbs that are loud at the end don't alternate. **Pronounce** is louder near the end than at the beginning.

Group B: This is wrong.

Group C: The only correct form is **The students pronounce a new word for their teacher.**

Group D: Are you sure that this is correct?

Comparison group: No feedback.

During the experimental sessions, the erroneous use of prepositions in the responses was not corrected; however, their occurrence was registered in the coding of the responses.

Both experimental sessions were divided into two parts: Part 1 of each session provided feedback after each response (feedback session), Part 2 of each session had no feedback (guessing session). The comparison group had no feedback in either part of the experimental session. Each part had 12 items, four of which were alternating sets; the other eight items had no alternating sentences.

Recall 1

Following the experimental sessions, the subjects were retested on all the items from the experimental sessions, this time with no feedback at all. The order of the sentences was different from the order used in the experimental sessions.

Recall 2

This session, identical to Recall 1, occurred about a week later. As with Recall 1, there was no feedback.

2. Major Findings and Conclusions

In order to examine the differences between the four types of negative feedback, analyses of variance and t-tests were conducted. The following tables and graphs present for both experiments the findings with respect to mean differences between test groups as well as mean differences between the three sessions within each group (i.e., INITIAL, FIRST RECALL, AND SECOND RECALL sessions).

Experiment 1: Dative Alternation

Figure 1 presents graphically the findings of analyses of variance (oneway) for Feedback items only, as reported in Tables 1, 3 and 5. The results in these tables reveal

that the differences among the test groups were significant, as indicated by probability values of .0000 for the F-ratios of the Initial, First and Second Recall sessions.

(Put Figure 1 and Tables 1,2,3,4,5,6 about here)

Further, for each session, the mean of the group associated with Type A feedback was the highest, while the mean of the comparison group was the lowest. It is noteworthy to observe that Type A feedback means are significantly higher than those of all other feedback groups on the Initial and Second Recall Sessions, and significantly higher than those of Type B and D on the First Recall session. The means for the remaining feedback types (B, C, and D) were very close to each other and as seen from Tables 2, 4 and 6, were not significantly different from each other at the 95 percent confidence level.

Figure 2 presents the findings of analyses of variance (oneway) as reported in Tables 7, 9 and 11. The results in these tables concern means for the Guessing items only. Differences among the test groups were significant in all three sessions.

(Put Figure 2 and Tables 7,8,9,10,11,12 about here)

The means associated with Type A feedback are again the highest and are significantly higher than Types B and D on the Initial Guessing session, and are significantly higher than Type B on the Second Recall. On the First Recall, none of the feedback types has significantly greater means than any other feedback type, although, once again, in all sessions the feedback groups do significantly better than the comparison group.

Tables 13 and 14 compare the means for the three different sessions within each test group for each item type. The groups that received Type A, B, and C feedback made very significant gains from the Initial to the First Recall session learning Feedback items. Group D also made significant gains but these were less dramatic. No group made significant gains from the Initial sessions with Feedback items to the Second Recall of those items. All test groups declined from the time of the First Recall to the Second Recall session, but the decline was significant only for Types B and C feedback.

(Put Tables 13 and 14 about here)

The means for the Initial Guessing session are higher than those of the Initial Feedback session but changes are not significant for any group from the Initial session to Recall 1, Recall 1 to Recall 2, or from the Initial session to Recall 2.

These results clearly show a learning effect for negative feedback since all of the treatment groups performed better than the comparison groups. What is particularly interesting from a theoretical perspective are the differences between the types of feedback. Type A feedback was the most explicit type of feedback providing direct metalinguistic information about the appropriate hypotheses for the subjects to construct and test. We would expect subjects receiving this type of feedback to do well if explicitness of feedback were to prove to be the most important factor in learning. This expectation appeared to be confirmed in Experiment 1. Telling a subject s/he was wrong, providing indirect metalinguistic feedback, even providing the correct form did not appear to help as much. The analysis of the Guessing items again showed an effect

for learning: all of the treatment groups did significantly better than the comparison group. This result is very important. In previous work (see Appendix I) we were able to show an effect of treatment on Feedback items but not on Guessing items. We were not certain if this was due to some deep cognitive factor or merely that subjects did not get "enough" exposure to the input to draw generalizations. Our current results suggest that feedback can help learners to formulate and test hypotheses. Even on the initial presentation of the Guessing items, there are significant differences between the Feedback and the comparison groups, differences which continue through the Recall sessions.

Let us now turn to the results of the qualitative analysis. Our statistical analysis showed that feedback was having an effect on subjects' responses. It does not, however, reveal if some input was more likely than others to induce erroneous responses, or if some stimuli were more amenable to correction. We carried out various additional analyses to shed light on these questions.

One question which almost always arises in studies involving lexical knowledge is whether subjects' prior knowledge of vocabulary influences their responses. Even rank beginners may know some English vocabulary. One way to investigate this is to look for differential responses to frequent and infrequent vocabulary, as defined by various word frequency counts. Learners are more likely to know frequent words. If prior lexical knowledge is affecting their responses to our elicitation procedures, then frequent words should be correctly used more often than infrequent words.

We consulted five sources: Swadesh (1954) (cited in Samarin (1967:220-223)), Swadesh (1955) and Gudschinsky (1956), Kucera and Francis (1967), Carroll, Davies and Richman (1971). Since the first two sources listed only 3 items used in our study (cook, give and say), only the latter two were used in the analysis. It should be noted, however, that one could argue from this observation to claim that our stimuli consisted of relatively infrequent words, and therefore transfer of prior knowledge should not occur often.

Most high-frequency words are [+ Native] and induce fairly high accuracy scores. However, there appeared to be no correlation between the correctness of subjects' responses and the frequency of the verbs used in the tests. Verbs such as owes, translated and mailed have fairly high means (78, 79, and 74 respectively) despite the fact that their frequencies are quite low on both the Kucera and Francis and Carroll et al. lists. Conversely, a frequent verb like say is often erroneously grouped with the alternating verb tell, presumably because it is similar in meaning and is monosyllabic.

Looking now at a particular type of erroneous response, namely those where the subject introduces major distortions to the sentence's syntax, we find a slight tendency for items with higher error scores to be less frequent verbs. Conversely, items with low errors tend to be more frequent. Frequent items might, therefore, be less likely to create major errors. Further investigation suggested, however, a different explanation.

Among the 9 items causing the fewest number of errors of this type, 8 were contained in verb phrases with a single verb. One co-occurred with an auxiliary. The items with the highest error scores, in contrast, tended to be contained in complex verb phrases as sentential complements (3 cases) or were followed by complex noun phrases (1 case). While it is only a tendency, the observation suggests subjects may have had

difficulty processing the syntax of the input. They might retain in memory the stressed lexical items but not be able to assign them correct structure.

We also examined the cognate status of the input. Since English contains a large proportion of Latinate words, and our subjects were Spanish-speaking, cognate-vocabulary might be easier to use correctly. We found no effect.

We examined cases where subjects altered responses from an incorrect to a correct one - presumably as a consequence of feedback, viz wrong- right - right responses, or wrong - wrong - right responses. We found an interaction of feedback and tense of the stimuli for a subclass of verbs. Normally, tense and feedback did not appear to interact with respect to subjects' responses. Some verbs in English require a change of vowel quality with a tense change (e.g. give - gave - have given; tell - told, have told; buy, bought, have bought). The average mean correct response for 4 such verbs (give, tell, sell, buy) was 56.5 vs. an average mean correct response of 44.25 for 4 regular preterit forms (offered, mailed, saved, ordered). Feedback would thus appear to have a positive effect when stimuli are irregular. This result is consistent with findings in Tomasello and Herron (1989) and Herron and Tomasello (1988). More importantly, in our view, is the fact that verbs exhibiting Ablaut (or the historical residue of Ablaut processes, cf. Lieber, 1980, for discussion) are [+Native], as are the verbs undergoing Dative Shift. So feedback is interacting with Dative Shift, in part, it would appear, precisely because a subset of the [+Native] verbs have irregular preterits. These forms presumably must be learned from positive input. Feedback may be drawing the learner's attention to the items, and have additional effects on the learner's awareness of the syntactic structure of the sentence.

We also looked at various measures of "length" for all groups, again focussing on positive effects of feedback. There is a phonological constraint on Dative Shift: verbs undergoing it must correspond to a metrical foot (an observation due to Jane Grimshaw, cited in Pinker, 1989). Any monosyllabic verb would be a foot, as would be bisyllabic words with stress on the first syllable (e.g. offer). One of our objectives was to see to what extent subjects could discover this property of the data. Our instructions to group A (see below for further discussion) only approximate this condition. No other group was given any explicit information about it, although, of course, all input conformed to it. We asked, accordingly what other kinds of hypotheses subjects might work with. One possibility was the number of syllables in a verb. Among the Dative Shift verbs feedback does not interact with number of syllables (1 vs. 2). Among the non-shift verbs, there are differences. Subjects were more likely to alter an erroneous response for 1 syllable words than larger words (48.25 vs. 39.42). For this group of verbs, similar figures arise if we count feet: 47.7 for 1-foot verbs vs. 39.96 for 2-footed words. So we cannot state which type of phonological constraint learners might be adopting. Moreover, since they also saw a visual stimuli, hypotheses about spelling might be responsible for shifts from erroneous to correct responses. We calculated a visual length difference selecting 6 letters as an arbitrary cut-off point. The mean for "short" words (1-6 letters) was 48.12 while the mean for "long" words (7 and more) was 39.43. We have no way of knowing then whether subjects were (correctly) counting feet or (incorrectly) counting syllables or letters. All we can say is that subjects were more likely to use feedback to alter responses with "short" items.

Group A subjects received specific information about the phonological and semantic conditions regulating Dative Shift. We examined their responses to see if

feedback affected one more than the other by comparing correct responses in the Recalls by type of feedback. If we compare simply the direction of shifts, phonological feedback leads just as much to lower scores on Recall 1 as to higher scores (6 vs. 5 times). Semantic feedback tends to lead to higher scores (8 vs. 2 times). Looking at percentages of errors, both types give similar results.

Error Score

	Feedback Session	Recall 1	Recall 2
Phonological Input	44%	27%	29.5%
Semantic Input	45%	30%	31%

We also examined responses by Group D subjects: those who were instructed that if they gave an incorrect response, they would be asked if they were sure they were right. We looked to see if subjects who had doubts about their responses would improve over those who did not. In other words, we wanted to see if feedback effects varied according to subjects' attitude toward their response. Responses were classified as correct or incorrect during the Experimental Feedback sessions. Slightly more correct responses were given ($X = 251$ vs. $X = 229$, $\Sigma = 480$). Incorrect responses were then grouped as sure (149) and not sure (80). These were then compared to responses by the same subjects on Recalls 1 and 2. Subjects who said they were sure of their erroneous responses were more likely to maintain an erroneous response throughout (100 or .67 vs. 25 or .31). They were less likely to shift to correct responses on both Recalls (18 or .12 vs. 38 or .46) and were less likely to produce a correct response on Recall 2 (33 or .22 vs. 41 or .51). Apparently, then, subjects who were not sure of their erroneous responses were more susceptible to the tacit feedback inherent in the questioning procedure, an interesting result worth further investigation.

The general conclusions to be drawn from the qualitative analysis are (1) prior knowledge (based on the frequency and cognate status of input stimuli) did not appear to be affecting subjects' responses, (2) the exact status of the class of alternating verbs could be decided by a number of different clues (length, stress, irregular past tense marking) each of which might interact with correction. How a subject might use these clues to decide if a verb alternates or not remains unanswered and a topic for future research.

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Figures and Tables

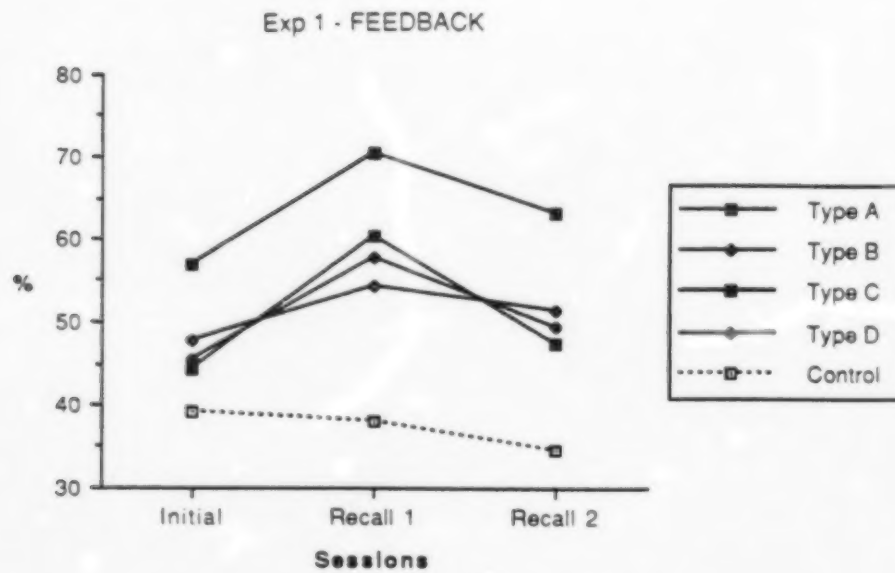


Figure 1

Analysis of variance of means: Feedback items (Exp. 1)

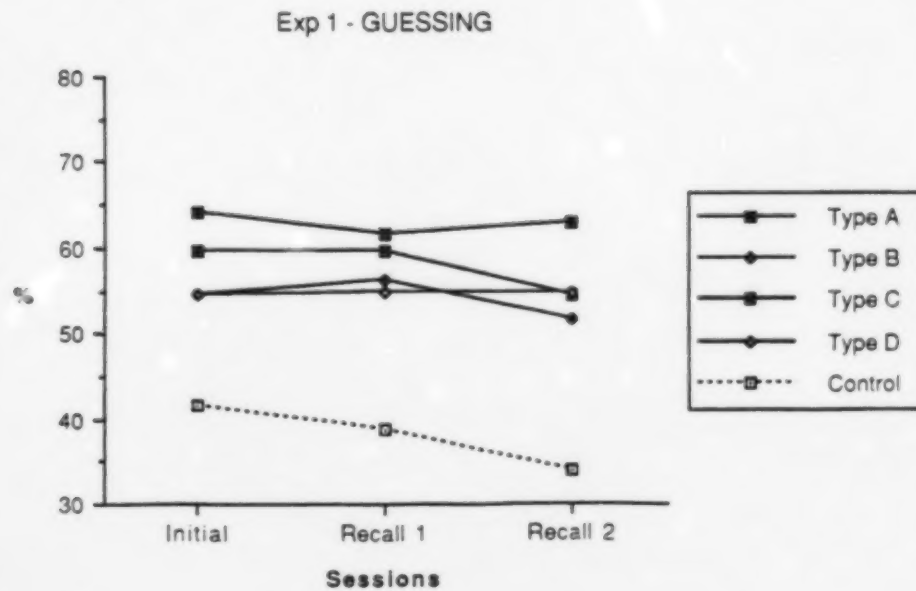


Figure 2:

Analysis of variance of means: Guessing items (Exp. 1)

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	.3387	.0847	5.4842	.0005
Within Groups	95	1.4668	.0154		
Total	99	1.8056			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Type A	20	.5687	.1092	.0244
Type B	20	.4542	.1223	.0274
Type C	20	.4417	.1126	.0252
Type D	20	.4771	.1293	.0289
Control	20	.3917	.1446	.0323
Total	100	.4667	.1350	.0135

Table 1: Analysis of variance of INITIAL FEEDBACK session
(Session 1 of Sessions 1 and 2 of Exp. 1)

Mean	Group	Z C B D A
.3917	Ctrl(Z)	
.4417	Type C	
.4542	Type B	
.4771	Type D	*
.5687	Type A	* * * *

Table 2: Between-group comparison of means of INITIAL FEEDBACK session (Exp. 1)

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	1.0942	.2736	10.9850	.0000
Within Groups	95	2.3657	.0249		
Total	99	3.4599			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Type A	20	.7021	.1400	.0313
Type B	20	.5771	.1764	.0394
Type C	20	.6042	.1885	.0422
Type D	20	.5417	.1431	.0320
Control	20	.3813	.1333	.0298
Total	100	.5613	.1869	.0187

Table 3: Analysis of variance of FEEDBACK ITEMS of FIRST RECALL session (Exp. 1)

Mean	Group	Z D B C A
.3813	Ctrl(Z)	
.5417	Type D	*
.5771	Type B	*
.6042	Type C	*
.7021	Type A	* * *

Table 4: Between-group comparison of means of FEEDBACK ITEMS of FIRST RECALL session (Exp. 1)

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	.8326	.2082	6.8933	.0001
Within Groups	95	2.8688	.0302		
Total	99	3.7014			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Type A	20	.6313	.1612	.0361
Type B	20	.4938	.2082	.0466
Type C	20	.4729	.1738	.0389
Type D	20	.5146	.1513	.0338
Control	20	.3458	.1689	.0378
Total	100	.4917	.1934	.0193

Table 5: Analysis of variance of FEEDBACK ITEMS of SECOND RECALL session (Exp. 1)

Mean	Group	Z C B D A
.3458	Ctrl(Z)	
.4729	Type C	*
.4938	Type B	*
.5146	Type D	*
.6313	Type A	* * * *

Table 6: Between-group comparison of means for FEEDBACK ITEMS of SECOND RECALL session (Exp. 1)

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	.5663	.1416	8.3599	.0000
Within Groups	95	1.6087	.0169		
Total	99	2.1749			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Type A	20	.6417	.1006	.0225
Type B	20	.5458	.1289	.0288
Type C	20	.5958	.1353	.0302
Type D	20	.5458	.1303	.0291
Control	20	.4167	.1505	.0337
Total	100	.5492	.1482	.0148

Table 7: Analysis of variance of INITIAL GUESSING session
(Session 2 of Sessions 1 and 2 in Exp. 1)

Mean	Group	Z D B C A
.4167	Ctrl(Z)	
.5458	Type D	*
.5458	Type B	*
.5958	Type C	*
.6417	Type A	* * *

Table 8: Between-group comparison of means of INITIAL GUESSING session (Exp. 1)

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	.6544	.1636	7.1274	.0000
Within Groups	95	2.1806	.0230		
Total	99	2.8351			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Type A	20	.6146	.1384	.0310
Type B	20	.5625	.1579	.0353
Type C	20	.5979	.1561	.0349
Type D	20	.5479	.1601	.0358
Control	20	.3875	.1438	.0321
Total	100	.5421	.1692	.0169

Table 9: Analysis of variance of GUESSING ITEMS of FIRST RECALL session (Exp. 1)

Mean	Group	Z D B C A
.3875	Ctrl(Z)	
.5479	Type D	*
.5625	Type B	*
.5979	Type C	*
.6146	Type A	*

Table 10: Between-group comparison of means of GUESSING ITEMS of FIRST RECALL session (Exp. 1)

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	.9290	.2322	7.5786	.0000
Within Groups	95	2.9113	.0306		
Total	99	3.8403			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Type A	20	.6313	.1374	.0307
Type B	20	.5167	.1663	.0372
Type C	20	.5458	.1818	.0407
Type D	20	.5500	.1791	.0401
Control	20	.3396	.2038	.0456
Total	100	.5167	.1970	.0197

Table 11: Analysis of variance of GUESSING ITEMS of SECOND RECALL session (Exp. 1)

Mean	Group	Z B C D A
.3396	Ctrl(Z)	
.5167	Type B	*
.5458	Type C	*
.5500	Type D	*
.6313	Type A	* *

Table 12: Between-group comparison of means of GUESSING ITEMS of SECOND RECALL (Exp. 1)

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

FEEDBACK	TypA	TypB	TypC	TypD	Ctrl
Initial	56.9	45.4	44.2	47.7	39.2
Recall1	70.2	57.7	60.4	54.2	38.1
Recall2	63.1	49.4	47.3	51.5	34.6
Prob (In/R1)	.000	.001	.001	.032	.740
Prob (R1/R2)	.087	.024	.001	.375	.187
Prob (In/R2)	.098	.331	.374	.137	.153

Table 13: Within-group comparison of means (Exp. 1)

GUESSING	TypA	TypB	TypC	TypD	Ctrl
Initial	64.2	54.6	59.6	54.6	41.7
Recall1	61.5	56.3	59.8	54.8	38.8
Recall2	63.1	51.7	54.6	55.0	34.0
Prob (In/R1)	.230	.460	.938	.938	.297
Prob (R1/R2)	.657	.184	.066	.947	.173
Prob (In/R2)	.738	.356	.233	.910	.062

Table 14: Within-group comparison of means (Exp. 1)

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May 1990

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